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ABSTRACT

This article draws a distinction between teaching English as a Second and Foreign Language (ESL v. EFL), demonstrating that in the latter case, teaching should be moderated towards greater emphasis on formal grammar instruction and on developing learners' interlingual and intercultural awareness. Advantages of EFL teachers who are nonnative speakers of English are shown for some EFL teaching conditions. The advantages are ties to the fact that such EFL teachers are those who, as a rule, share their students' mother tongue and culture and are therefore better prepared for coping with the specific problems that originate from incompatibilities or differences in target and native languages or cultures. Some ways of eliminating such teachers' natural disadvantages as non-native speakers of English are advocated. (Contains 53 references.) (KFT)

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EFL Teaching and EFL Teachers in the Global Expansion of English

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This article draws a distinction between teaching English as a second and foreign language, demonstrating that in the latter case, teaching should be modified towards greater emphasis on formal grammar instruction and on developing learners' interlingual and intercultural awareness. Advantages of EFL teachers who are non-native speakers of English are shown for some EFL teaching conditions. The advantages are tied to the fact that such EFL teachers are those who, as a rule, share their students' mother tongue and culture and are, therefore, better prepared for coping with the specific problems that originate from incompatibilities or differences in target and native languages and/or cultures. Some ways of eliminating such teachers' natural disadvantages as non-native speakers of English are advocated.

With the global expansion of English as the language of international communication, another expansion is taking place that of teaching and learning English as a foreign language (EFL), i.e., outside the countries where it is spoken and where it has internal communicative functions and sociopolitical status (on this issue see Nayar, 1997). This second expansion puts two questions to the forefront of professional discussion. The first of them is whether EFL can and should be taught in the same way as English as a second language (ESL) is taught when it is acquired by speakers of other languages in the countries where English is the mother tongue of the majority of the population[1]. The second question is tied to the fact that in EFL teaching situations the majority of teachers of English are not native speakers due to obvious reasons. It is enough to mention only one of them - the most apparent. With the global expansion of English and the quickly growing need of learning the language felt by millions of people, there never will be enough professional teachers of English who are native speakers to meet the demand of the world over. In EFL, native speakers of English will inevitably be in the minority as teachers. Hence, the question is

[1]Nayar (1997) has shown that ESL/EFL dichotomy is not full as there are marginal situations, but they are irrelevant for the purposes of this article and will not be discussed further.

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whether a professional teacher of English who is not a native speaker of the language s/he teaches is always at a disadvantage as compared to his or her colleague who had been lucky enough to be born in the UK, the USA, Canada, or Australia. Is it possible that in EFL situations the former may have some advantages over the latter? Which are those advantages that she or he can reasonably hope to enjoy and can the obvious disadvantages of such a teacher's position be somehow softened and avoided?

The purpose of this article is to discuss some answers to these questions.

ESL/EFL Dichotomy in Teaching - Theoretical and Practical Implications

Researchers' opinions differ as to the answer to the first question above because some of them deny the existence of any difference in the way EFL should be taught in comparison with ESL. On the contrary, other authors emphasize the difference analyzing its underlying reasons.

Those authors who do not see the necessity of a clear differentiation between ESL and EFL teaching base this opinion on the assumption that second language acquisition data are fully applicable to foreign language learning (Savignon 1990; VanPatten 1990). Yet, many others support the notion that the two processes do not coincide. For instance, Seliger (1988: 27) points out that, despite the universality of manner and order of acquiring an L2 by speakers of different first languages, there are no data to disprove the possibility of different effects for first language transfer in contexts where learners have little or no exposure to the second language outside the classroom, and where all the other students speak the same first language. Wildner-Bassett (1990) sees a clear-cut distinction between a second language setting where native and non-native speakers communicate for real communication purposes and a foreign language setting where only artificial communication is possible. Though Bassett ascribes different discourse patterns more to classroom - non-classroom differences than to FL/SL differences, these dissimilar patterns are quite real and objective. That is why Kramsch (1990) is justified in saying that a separate agenda is necessary in foreign language learning research as distinct from second language acquisition research.

All in all, it may be said that there is no unanimous opinion concerning the relationship between second language acquisition and foreign language learning (VanPatten & Lee 1990). But the opinion that the two processes are different at least in some respects and therefore should be treated differently is quite well founded and matches much of the empirical data. Two principal differences can be pinpointed that will hardly evoke any objections on the part of researchers and practical teachers.

The first of these differences becomes clear from the very definition of what foreign language learning is as distinct from second language acquisition. Foreign language teaching/learning means that L2 is not used as one of the primary means of communication in the country where it is learned, i.e., there is reference to the speech community outside this country (Berns 1990b; Paulston 1992). In

other words, we speak about EFL when English, as it has already been mentioned above, is taught in countries where it has little or no internal communicative function or sociopolitical status (Nayar 1997: 31); it is just a school subject with no recognized status or function at all (Richards, Platt, & Weber 1985).

This means that EFL learners, unlike ESL learners, get in touch with English only in the classroom, and hardly anywhere else outside it. And class hours in EFL conditions are inevitably limited. If English is learned at school or university, there are many other subjects to study; therefore, classes of English cannot be held more frequently than two or three times a week. If it is learned in the framework of some intensive program (IEP), the situation is of course better, but even in these conditions people cannot have classes every weekday for five or six hours as is usually the case with ESL IEPs. It is because EFL IEPs are usually designed for learners who do not discontinue their work or studies during the program period as is done by those ESL students who come to an English-speaking country with the purpose of acquiring a command of English.

The inevitable consequence is a scarcity of input in English (comprehensible or any other), serious limitations in variety, richness and volume of the input available to an EFL student in comparison with an ESL student. It means that, as compared to ESL, EFL learners have very limited opportunities to develop their interlanguage and gradually bringing it nearer to the target language following the classic second language (SLA) acquisition paradigm (Ellis 1994; Krashen 1985) through making and testing their own hypotheses as to the target language structure on the basis of rich and varied comprehensible input. This unavoidable deficiency has to be compensated for, and such a compensation has hardly any other alternative than explicit focusing on language forms with the aim of supplying students with hypotheses and testing them in special language form-focusing learning activities.

In ESL teaching the need for and usefulness of what is called focus on language form (see Doughty & Williams 1998) and formal grammar instruction has until lately been either strongly doubted or completely rejected, following Krashen's (1982, 1985) SLA theory. But in recent years the pendulum has started swinging in the other direction. Numerous authors insist on the necessity of an approach rationally combining communication and cognition, i.e., on reinforcing unconscious language acquisition in communication with conscious focusing on language structures. Rutherford (1987) who developed the theory and practice of students' consciousness-raising as to grammar forms has always been one of the most ardent proponents of the idea that language focusing is inevitable in SLA. A number of other authors supplied data (often experimental) supporting the need of some kind of formal grammar instruction as an inherent part of teaching for facilitating acquisition (Bley-Vroman 1990; Doughty 1991; Herron & Tomasello 1992; VanPatten & Cadierno 1993). Even Ellis (1986; 1990; 1994) who is very cautious about admitting the positive role of formal grammar instruction points out that it enhances the second language acquisition by

accelerating its process.

If such views are gaining prominence in SLA theory and ESL teaching, they are all the more true in EFL teaching where, as it has already been said, there is a serious deficiency in volume, richness and variety of comprehensible input, and compensation for this deficiency can hardly be found anywhere else but in integrating some sort of formal grammar instruction into the teaching/learning process. Many authors support the absolute necessity of such integration in EFL and one can rarely meet objections to it in the professional literature. For instance, Chaudron wrote, "Instruction will especially be valuable when other naturalistic input is not available, as in a foreign language instruction contexts, or when learners are at a low level of proficiency and not as likely to obtain sufficient comprehensible input in naturalistic encounters" (1988: 6). Such a proposition is shared by McDonough & Shaw (1993: 35) who point out that "... a more grammatically oriented syllabus is to be preferred in a context where English is a foreign language and where learners are unlikely to be exposed to it".

Since nobody doubts that English is taught for communication, and the only way to teach communication in the target language is learning it in communication and through communication, the question arises how to achieve in EFL the integration of formal grammar instruction and focus on language form into the dominantly communicative approach leaving intact the prevailing communicative constituent of the teaching/learning process. One of the ways of attaining this is the communicative-analytic approach already described elsewhere (Tarnopolsky, 1997; 1998).

This approach is based on the assumption that focus on language form (analysis) will serve the purpose of EFL learning for communication only if communication absolutely dominates analysis so that the latter is nothing more than a support for accelerating the development of communicative competence. A combination of communication and cognition (communicative-analytic approach) is possible if the pattern of "guided communication – focus on language form (analysis) - unguided communication" is followed in the organization of learning activities in the framework of every learning unit consisting of several classes.

According to this pattern, the first stage (one or two classes) in a learning unit is devoted to students' receiving the greatest possible amount of comprehensible input in the target language and to their attempts to use this input in their own communication without analyzing new language forms - just on the basis of input models, i.e., synthetically, as comprehensible output (Swain, 1985). It can be done only with different speech supports from the teacher and teaching materials guiding the process of learners' verbal interaction and making it a guided (controlled) quasi-communication. The holistically communicative approach at the start of every learning unit makes the new language material in the input communicatively meaningful for learners and ensures its initial processing and retention in communication. It permits making the second stage in the learning unit a class of analysis devoted to focusing students' conscious attention on the new language forms that were already used in guided communication. The principal contents of learning

activities at this stage are analyzing these forms and their purposeful practicing. Though such practicing is primarily language form-focused, it should at the same time simulate some basic features of communication as the function of this practice is gaining command of language forms for their free and fluent use in further verbal interaction.

This leads to the crowning stage (one or two classes) in a learning unit – that of unguided communication with no artificial speech supports. The suggested approach ensures gradual elimination of the middle link in the "guided communication – focus on language form (analysis) - unguided communication" pattern as soon as learners master some preset minimum of target language forms (usually at the point of transition from the intermediate to the upper intermediate level). It means that the communicative-analytic approach presupposes its own transformation into a purely communicative one.

The approach just discussed is only one of a number of possible alternatives for organizing EFL teaching/learning. Its advantage (see Tarnopolsky, 1998) is in taking full account of the first of the two differences in EFL situations as compared to ESL, i.e., the deficiency in volume and richness of comprehensible input that students get - this deficiency requiring considerable but balanced focus on language form that is called upon to help and accelerate the development of learners' communicative abilities, but in no way damaging or delaying it.

There is also the second principal difference between EFL learning and ESL acquisition that originates from the same source – absence of learner's immersion into the target language cultural community. To explain this difference, it should be remembered that communication in any language does not mean only output and intake of verbal content information. Not all of it is content information since a great part is bound up with social and cultural norms of a given community (formulas of politeness, etc.) while some of the information is not verbal (e.g., gesticulation accepted in a given culture). This aspect of communication is reflected in Hymes' (1986: 63-64) notions of norms of interaction and norms of interpretation. Hymes shows that norms of interaction are specific proprieties and behaviors attached to speaking, while norms of interpretation may be considered as those behavioral norms that are crucial for correct interpretation of information being received in communication (e.g., the acceptable distance between interlocutors in different speech communities). These ideas of Hymes were a source of inspiration to quite a number of sociolinguistic studies that have demonstrated the need to teach L2 learners rules of speaking, or sociolinguistic behavior, proper to the target language native speakers (Wolfson 1989). Such studies have demonstrated that intercultural miscommunication is the result of sociolinguistic transfer of behavior characteristics of L1 speech community into interaction with native speakers of L2 (Chick 1996). That is why what McGroaty (1996: 11) called "language behavior during social interaction" and, in general, the culture of interaction proper to the target speech community must become an integral and fundamental part of education when L2 is taught and biliteracy is developed (Hornberger 1996).

The information above may be called communicative behavioral information

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since it is a regulator of interlocutors' behavior in verbal interaction (norms of interaction and norms of interpretation). All possible regulators of this kind may be called communicative behavioral patterns and divided into three principal types.

1. Verbal communicative behavioral patterns that can be demonstrated by a culturally recognized behavioral difference between two questions (absolutely identical from the point of view of content information conveyed) – "Do you want anything to drink?" and "Would you like anything to drink?" The first one is behaviorally appropriate when talking to a close friend, a family member, etc., but not in the formal polite intercourse where only the second alternative question would be admissible.

2. Non-verbal communicative behavioral patterns such as whether it is required or not to shake hands upon meeting; how to gesticulate and what gestures are admissible in the process of communication in a given culture (taking into account different meanings of identical gestures in different cultures); what style of dressing is socially and culturally acceptable and what is the meaningful message of this or that mode of dressing for members of the given community – and a multitude of similar patterns.

3. Lifestyle communicative behavioral patterns that reflect ways of doing simple everyday things, as well as verbal and non-verbal communication structuring while doing such things as shopping, using public transport, having meals, providing oneself with housing accommodations and many others - things that are done differently (often very differently) in different cultures. Command of just those patterns characteristic of the target language culture is probably no less important than the command of the target language itself since it is their absence that is the principal cause of the cultural shock often felt by a person immersed into an alien (foreign) cultural community[2].

If in both ESL and EFL teaching following the communicative behavioral patterns of the first type (verbal) are always taught very thoroughly, those of the second and third types (non-verbal and lifestyle ones) are either not taught at all or taught in a very fragmented manner. There is nothing surprising in this. An ESL or EFL teacher who is a native speaker of English often does not teach these types since it is not required by course books s/he uses, s/he has enough problems on her or his hands without it, and she or he was not taught that this particular problem was relevant. An EFL teacher who is not a native speaker of English and who has not ever been to the United States or Great Britain does not usually have reliable English coursebooks

[2]Communicative behavioral patterns may be classified differently – all of them can be divided into verbal and non-verbal communicative behavioral patterns while the area of communication (and interaction in general) will serve as another basis for classifying both verbal and non-verbal patterns. In this way we will have not only lifestyle communicative behavioral patterns but also behavioral patterns in business, military, and all sorts of professional communication. But this classification is more useful for sociolinguistic research and for ESP teaching. The classification given above, being more compact, seems to be more convenient for teaching General English.and comprehensive sources from which to take this particular information.

have it only in fragments and as a rule do not set it down systematically – even if purely cultural issues are treated (much more attention is given to exotic traditions or to descriptions of political and educational systems, history, art, and literature). It is also hardly surprising even if the authors of course books are native speakers of English since, as Wolfson (1989: 53) justly pointed out, "... socio-linguistic patterns are ... not objectively known to native speakers, including the teachers and material writers who are most in need of applying them".

It should be noted however, for the sake of fairness, that information about the lifestyle communicative behavioral patterns in English-speaking countries has become more prevalent in English course books written in recent years. A good example is the *Matters* series written by Jan Bell and Roger Gower (1997, 1998). And yet, even in the best course books, this information remains too fragmented and non-systematic to ensure students' developing target lifestyle communicative behavioral patterns – while non-verbal communicative behavioral patterns are, as a rule, not given any attention at all.

It may not be a problem in ESL teaching because a student who is acquiring her or his English in an English-speaking country will grasp non-verbal and lifestyle communicative behavioral patterns very quickly just because she or he is exposed to these patterns due to immersion in an English-speaking cultural community.

But an EFL learner may, and usually does, finish her or his course of English without having any idea of how different non-verbal and lifestyle communicative behavioral patterns in her or his home culture and in the English-speaking cultural communities are. As a result, however good a command over the target language a learner acquires, it does not save her or him from problems and misunderstandings with native speakers and social institutions in the target cultural community – especially if it is vastly different in its style of daily life as compared to her or his home community. In such a situation cultural shocks are especially serious and painful – due to contrast between a good command of the language itself and inability to understand what is going on around you. In this respect, for EFL learners acquiring the target culture's non-verbal and lifestyle communicative behavioral patterns while learning communication in the language of that culture, it is of particular importance[3].

All of this means that non-verbal and lifestyle communicative behavioral patterns must find a considerable place in EFL teaching (it is certainly possible

[3] There are certainly some EFL learners who do not expect to go to English-speaking countries, and for them there is no acuteness in the problem of cultural shocks. In such cases it may be said that this category of learners is not in great need of being taught non-verbal and lifestyle communicative behavioral patterns. But as the experience of EFL teaching in some countries (e.g., Ukraine and other countries of the former USSR) has shown, learners of this category are in absolute minority. Usually they select specific courses of English with focus on developing reading and writing skills, and their case will not be taken into consideration any further (besides, absence of awareness of some specific cultural non-verbal and lifestyle communicative behavioral patterns while reading or writing can also become the cause of lack of comprehension and of miscommunication).

only after specific teaching materials are prepared). The inclusion of such patterns into the teaching/learning process bears much closer relation to getting familiarized with the target community's culture than to acquiring its language. And learning alien (foreign) culture in the midst of the home culture is hardly possible without constant comparisons between the two cultures.

This leads to the conclusion that there must be two principal differences in organizing EFL teaching as compared to ESL. The first of them is almost universally admitted. It is necessary to pay much greater attention to focus on language form and formal grammar instruction activities but without encroaching on the fundamental principles of the communicative approach, mainly the principle one of them – teaching language for communication, in communication, and through communication. The second difference is generally much less emphasized but seems no less important. It lies in the requirement to pay much greater attention to developing target culture communicative behavioral patterns (first of all, non-verbal and lifestyle ones) on the basis of comparing them to those of the home culture.

The formulation of these two principle differences makes it possible to start discussing the second question put at the beginning of this article. This is the question of what are the advantages and disadvantages in EFL of a teacher of English who is not a native speaker of English.

Advantages, Disadvantages and Prospects in EFL of a Teacher of English Who Is Not a Native Speaker of English

Discussing this issue, it is better to start with the advantages in EFL situations of a teacher of English who is not a native speaker (such teachers will hereafter be called TENNS) as compared to teachers of English who are native speakers of this language (hereafter called TENS). It is because, as it has already been mentioned in the Introduction, TENNS will probably always be in the majority in EFL, and if a situation cannot be changed, it is probably most important to find what its advantages are. Some advantages of a TENNS in EFL have already been discussed in the professional literature.

The opinions of some of the authors in this issue are inextricably bound with the issue of using or not using the mother tongue in the English classroom. It is emphasized now that "English only" tactics in the classroom are more damaging than the limited use of learners' mother tongue where it may help (Auerbach 1993). The first language is hardly avoidable in ordinary EFL conditions where all the learners, as well as the teacher (TENNS), speak it. In this case the most favorable situation for L2 acquisition is absolutely impossible since it requires:

1) a great deal of oral language input not only from teachers, but also from native speakers of that language;

2) an opportunity to use the L2 in meaningful contexts where feedback from native speakers is received (McLaughlin 1985).

So, it would be reasonable to use the advantages given by the common knowledge of L1. These advantages are in opportunities of turning to the L1 in order to facilitate some specific difficulties of the L2, and in using the L1 for explaining some points that it would be hard to explain in the L2. This is the opinion supported by Cook (1999: 201) who considers learners' L1 a valuable instrument in presenting meaning. That is also why Widdowson (1994) strongly objects to the assumption that a native-speaker is always better as a teacher of English than a teacher whose mother tongue is not English. If English is taught as a foreign language in a non-English-speaking setting where all learners share the same first language, the teacher who speaks this L1 has the advantage of being better prepared to cope with those specific problems of his/her students that originate from incompatibilities or differences in the target and native languages (Medgyes, 1983; Tang, 1997).

The view that native speakers are not always the best teachers of English is gradually spreading (O'Dwyer, 1996). It also finds support in the current opinion that different kinds of teaching materials are needed when teaching English in different countries - in Germany they cannot be the same as in Japan, and there cannot be one and the same teaching methodology for all the countries (Berns, 1990a: 104-105). If this approach is correct, participation of teachers and specialists in teaching English who are not native speakers in organizing and carrying out EFL teaching becomes absolutely indispensable, as well as making appropriate use of students' L1 in such conditions.

The opinions quoted above may be summarized by saying that, according to them, the advantages of a TENNS in EFL lie in the ability to make recourse to the students' mother tongue where it can facilitate, accelerate and improve the learning process and also in the ability to better understand students' problems in English – those that originate from L1-L2 differences.

The analysis made in the preceding part of this article provides strong support for these opinions and also adds some other advantages. If paying greater attention to focus on language form activities (i.e., to students' consciousness-raising as to language forms) is required, such consciousness-raising will certainly be much more effective and students will get much clearer ideas about the target language structure by way of comparing it to the mother tongue structure. In ESL teaching such explicit comparisons are hardly possible since there are students with different mother tongues in the same group while the teacher's mother tongue is, as a rule, English. But even if this comparison is not done explicitly, it is inevitably done by students themselves since "whether we like it or not, the new language is learned on the basis of a previous language" (Stern, 1992: 282). It certainly concerns adult and adolescent learners who speak only their mother tongue from their early childhood (are not bilingual or trilingual from childhood) because for them, their L1 is such an integral and inseparable part of their personalities and mentalities that everything in the new language is perceived from the

point of view of and compared to the L1's structure and rules. So, there is no sense in excluding such explicit interlingual comparisons in the situations where they are quite possible and rational – in monolingual EFL groups of learners where the teacher shares her or his students' mother tongue. But it can only be done if the teacher does share the same L1, meaning that this sharing is an advantage of a TENNS over a TENS in EFL situations.

To give support to the view that explicit interlingual comparisons and an ability to make them in EFL is indeed an advantage for the teacher, some ESL/EFL research can be cited. In the last two decades the research interest in L1 transfer and interference questions has been greatly revived and a number of works on these issues have been published (see, for instance, Adjemian 1983; Bialystok & Hakuta 1994; Ellis 1994; Faerch & Kasper 1987; Kellerman 1984; Odlin 1989). It comes to be more often emphasized in these works that interlingual awareness of students, which is the result of interlingual comparisons, fosters the use of transfer strategies (see a practical example in the article by Deignan, Gabrys & Solska 1997). The relevant set of ideas may be summarized in the following quotation from Schweers (1997: 10) who asserts that there is

> ...a correlation between a learner's level of interlingual awareness and the frequency of use of transfer strategies. Interlingual awareness is a learner's awareness of and sensitivity to relationships that exist between L1 and L2 at all levels. The more interlingually aware learners are, the more frequently they will use the transfer strategy. Furthermore, interlingual awareness and transfer use can be increased through the use of modules that draw the learners' attention to areas of similarity and difference.

Therefore, one more advantage of a TENNS over a TENS in EFL is that the former can purposefully develop her or his students' interlingual awareness while the latter cannot[4].

What has been said about learners' interlingual awareness is also true in what concerns their intercultural awareness. Moreover, developing intercultural awareness in EFL teaching/learning process seems even more important than developing interlingual awareness. It is because in the conditions of students' little personal contact with the target cultural community, when the target culture is nothing but "book knowledge", only purposeful comparisons with the home culture can give it some "flesh and blood". And again, a TENNS is much better equipped for making such comparisons and developing learners' intercultural awareness than TENS (certainly if a TENNS has enough knowledge about the target language cultural communities, especially in the domain of non-verbal and

[4] A TENS certainly can do it too if she or he has a good command of her or his students' mother tongue and the group taught is monolingual, but it is a rare occasion for TENS.

lifestyle communicative behavioral patterns discussed before). A TENS, having to say a lot about her or his home culture, cannot compare it to the home culture of her or his students as s/he does not know this latter culture well enough[5].

There is one more psychological advantage pinpointed by Cook (1999: 200) who wrote that "... students may feel overwhelmed by native-speaker teachers who have achieved a perfection that is out of the students' reach.... Students may prefer the fallible nonnative-speaker teacher who presents a more achievable model".

Everything said above leads to the conclusion that a highly qualified and competent TENNS has the following five advantages over a TENS when English is taught as a foreign language (outside the country where it is spoken) in a monolingual group and when this TENNS shares her or his students' mother tongue and home culture:

1) s/he can use her/his students' mother tongue whenever and wherever it can facilitate and accelerate the process of learning English;

2) s/he is much better equipped to help her/his students cope with those learning problems that depend on L1 and L2 differences and that can be solved effectively only when the teacher has a clear idea about the essence of these differences;

3) s/he is much better equipped for developing her/his students' interlingual awareness conducive to their acquiring those transfer strategies that are an important prerequisite for target language learning;

4) s/he is much better equipped for developing her/his students' intercultural awareness that is the only way of learning target culture (especially target non-verbal and lifestyle communicative behavioral patterns) in the conditions where students have no or very little direct contact with target cultural communities; and

5) s/he "presents a more achievable model" to her/his students not overwhelming them with the native-speaker's perfection.

This list of advantages should be set off against the list of disadvantages – meaning certainly only the disadvantages of a highly qualified and competent TENNS, those that are hardly avoidable despite the qualification. These disadvantages are self-evident.

The first is a foreign accent and other more or less serious imperfections in English that the best of TENNS often cannot get rid of during the length of their career – even if their visits to English-speaking countries were lengthy. It is well known that the achievement of native-like perfection in a foreign language not only takes years of practice but the goal is seldom fully attained – practically never if language is learned in adulthood and not in early childhood

[5] Of course, if s/he does know it and can make the comparisons in question, s/he is much better equipped for teaching culture, non-verbal and lifestyle communicative behavioral patterns to EFL students than a TENNS. But such cases are as rare as cases of a TENS having good command of her or his students' mother tongue.

(Walsh & Diller 1981). In general, L2 adult learners as a rule stop short of native-like success in a number of areas (Towell & Hawkins, 1994: 14-15), and the goal of attaining native-like perfection is better not set at all, especially in such a delicate field as pronunciation. The same may be said about training future teachers of English who are not native speakers if they started learning the language as adolescents or adults, which is most often the case.

The second disadvantage is the fact that for a TENNS, however competent she or he is, it is very difficult to be aware of all the recent developments in English. Any language is a living organism that undergoes constant changes. Even if a TENNS acquired her or his English in an English-speaking country, on returning there after 20 years of teaching it in the home country, she or he will find the language considerably changed, especially in vocabulary. And many TENNS often do not get to English-speaking countries even once in their lifetimes (or get there only once or twice). Regular listening to the radio and watching films in English, reading books, magazines and newspapers, contacting native speakers who come to the home country of a TENNS can remedy the situation in a way, but there is hardly any doubt that her or his opportunities of being up-to-date in the latest trends and tendencies in English are more than limited in comparison with a TENS.

The same can be said of cultural awareness. It is especially true concerning the non-verbal and lifestyle communicative behavioral patterns. It has already been mentioned that they are often not taught purposefully. Not only "ordinary" EFL students but teachers of English who are not native speakers of it sometimes do not even suspect that these patterns may be quite different in their home culture and in the target culture. Certainly, such TENNS cannot properly prepare their students for contacts with target language cultural communities upon coming to an English-speaking country. They cannot make their students immune to cultural shocks - so, this disadvantage (lack of cultural awareness) is probably the gravest of all.

The last disadvantage is tied to limited availability of the latest and most advanced English teaching materials and methods developed in English-speaking countries – those materials and methods that are much easier accessed and better known by a TENS. Organizations such as the British Council do a lot to disseminate the materials and methods in question but their efforts cannot reach all the TENNS and there are many other objective limitations (for instance, financial).

All the discussion above leads to a conclusion that there are both very serious advantages and substantial disadvantages of a TENNS (as compared to a TENS) in the situation when she or he teaches English as a foreign language in her or his home country. It may be even tentatively said that in some way advantages and disadvantages balance each other. This fact leads me to stimulate further discussion of the issue with the view of considering TENNS prospects in EFL teaching situations.

These prospects can be considered only under one angle. If it is true that

TENNS will always be in the majority in EFL so that EFL teaching will be mainly done by them, then their prospects depend on how well their advantages can be used and on how well their disadvantages can be fought against.

As to using advantages, it is clear that they can most fully be used under the conditions of the already described communicative-analytic approach. Due to its analytic component, this approach seems to be best adapted to developing learners' interlingual and intercultural awareness by making relevant comparisons. It gives the best opportunities for rational using of students' mother tongue in the process of such comparisons and analysis, and it also gives opportunities for the teacher to concentrate on just those specific L2 problems that present the greatest difficulties to learners with a definite L1.

But to use all these advantages of being a TENNS, the teacher must have all the appropriate methodology and materials at her or his disposal. Development of such methodology and materials directed specifically at teaching English as a foreign language in a given country with a given mother tongue and "mother culture" of EFL students may probably be considered as the priority task for EFL researchers and developers of teaching materials. Such a task for any given country with any given mother tongue and culture of its EFL students cannot certainly be solved by researchers and developers who do not know the country, its language and culture well enough. The best solution would probably be forming teams or task-forces consisting of EFL researchers and developers of teaching materials from an English-speaking country and from the country for which the methodology and the teaching materials in question are to be designed. Such task-forces may be temporary – with the task of developing just one particular methodology and one set of teaching materials (for instance, to teach children of a certain age) – or more permanent teams may be formed gradually working towards developing methodologies and teaching materials for different categories of learners and different kinds of EFL courses. If such specific methodologies and teaching materials to be used by competent and highly qualified TENNS are created, it will be in these teachers' power to greatly improve EFL teaching in their countries.

The next problem is bound up with the question of fighting those disadvantages of TENNS that were described above as often inherent even in the best situation. As to the first of these disadvantages, imperfections in English of a TENNS (especially her or his foreign accent) – they may be considerably reduced and become quite minor in the course of practicing, upgrading one's qualification, contacting native speakers during the teaching career, in-service and out-of-service training (especially if it is organized in English-speaking countries), reading and watching films in English, listening to the radio, etc.; many of the imperfections will totally disappear if appropriate efforts are made. But taking account of the opinions quoted above (Walsh & Diller 1981; Towell & Hawkins 1994), it is hardly possible to count on total disappearance of all such imperfections so that there will be absolutely no difference in this respect between a TENNS and a TENS. But the disadvantage being discussed is of a really minor importance considering contemporary

views on the issue of World Englishes (Kachru 1986; Kachru & Nelson 1996; Widdowson 1994). These views make great allowances for variations in standards of English as it is spoken in the UK, the USA, Canada, or Australia - so that some "internationally acceptable version of the target language" (Willis 1996: 12) "rather than a native speaker variety could be used ... " (Cook 1999: 198) as a standard. (It certainly does not eliminate the necessity for a TENNS to know the native speaker standards and approach them as closely as possible both in her or his own English and in her or his teaching).

In what concerns the other three disadvantages, they can and should be eliminated both during the initial training of a future TENNS and during her or his following in-service and out-of-service training periods, as well as in the process of teacher's independent studies to upgrade her or his own qualification. These disadvantages must be eliminated because they do not give the opportunity of really efficient and up-to-date EFL teaching. It goes without saying that to attain this goal, all the qualification upgrading measures indicated in the preceding paragraph, as well as continuous study of the latest professional literature, are of paramount importance. But these measures are far from sufficient because, as it has already been said, a TENNS often does not have access to the materials and sources s/he needs in her or his home country. Regular (at least once in every five years) out-of-service training periods in some English-speaking countries would certainly solve the problem, but this solution can hardly be considered as practically feasible. Of all the army of TENNS the world over, it is certainly a minority that gets at least one chance in a lifetime of having such training in the target language country. But there are thousands upon thousands of TENNS who have never even been to Great Britain, the USA, Australia, or Canada, to say nothing of getting trained there.

And yet, there seems to be two quite feasible solutions, thanks to the presence of hundreds of TENS in the countries where English is taught as a foreign language and to the achievements of modern technology. The first of them lies in certain re-orientation of many TENS working in non-English-speaking countries from teaching EFL students towards teaching TENNS – becoming their instructors and consultants in contemporary trends of development of the English language itself, in culture and communicative behavioral patterns proper to the English-speaking nations, in tendencies and latest developments in the fields of EFL/ESL teaching. In this way every TENS could become an instructor for groups of TENNS during their periods of in-service or out-of-service training and a consultant for much more of them in their practical everyday job. This option is already being actively made use of in many countries, but it alone cannot solve the problem as a whole. Not all the TENNS have access to such an in-service and out-of-service training even in their home countries, there are often not enough TENS to do it, and some of those available are not sufficiently qualified to be employed in teacher training. So, while using this option whenever and wherever possible, another more radical and reliable solution may be accepted as the ultimate one.

This second solution lies in elaborating the worldwide networks of continuous TENNS in-service training via Internet. These networks should be designed to provide TENNS with audio-visual interactive training programs and consultative service concentrating on: 1) latest developments in the English language itself; 2) cultural issues – with the main emphasis on communicative behavioral patterns (verbal, non-verbal and lifestyle ones); 3) latest and most advanced developments in ELT; 4) latest and most advanced teaching materials for ELT. Such Internet continuous training courses and consultative service may be accessible to practically all the TENNS the world over and even in most out-of-the-way places. They may well be the most radical step towards making future prospects for TENNS really bright as they may greatly help to eliminate such teachers' disadvantages and provide grounds for attaining high quality EFL teaching by any competent TENNS in whatever far away corner she or he is working. But to be efficient, such networks should be multiple and aimed at specific groups of TENNS (for instance, an in-service training program for teachers teaching English to students between ages of 12 and 16 in a definite country with a definite culture and a definite students' mother tongue). Creating such networks and programs for them is a long and arduous work requiring broad participation and close cooperation between numerous EFL researchers and specialists in developing teaching materials from English-speaking countries and countries for which each particular program is going to be designed. But the final results – obtaining a highly qualified army of TENNS deprived of their traditional disadvantages – seem to be worth the time and effort.

Conclusion

EFL teaching has some important differences from ESL requiring a specific approach with a greater emphasis on focus on language forms and on getting command of culture-specific communicative behavioral patterns (especially non-verbal and lifestyle ones) characteristic of English-speaking nations. Such an approach also requires developing students' interlingual and intercultural awareness by way of comparing L1 and L2 structures and cultures. Only teachers who share their monolingual students' mother tongue and culture can facilitate making such comparisons by EFL learners and developing their interlingual/intercultural awareness. This fact is the basis of a number of important advantages of these teachers in EFL teaching situations. At the same time, not being native speakers of English as a rule, they have a number of serious disadvantages that are not only obstacles to effective use of their own advantages, but also obstacles to the efficient organization of EFL teaching in general. These disadvantages can and should be eliminated in the conditions of global expansion of English when such teachers mostly teach EFL. The optimal and most practical way of eliminating their disadvantages is by providing the majority of EFL teachers who are not native speakers of English with the worldwide

networks of continuous in-service training via the Internet.

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